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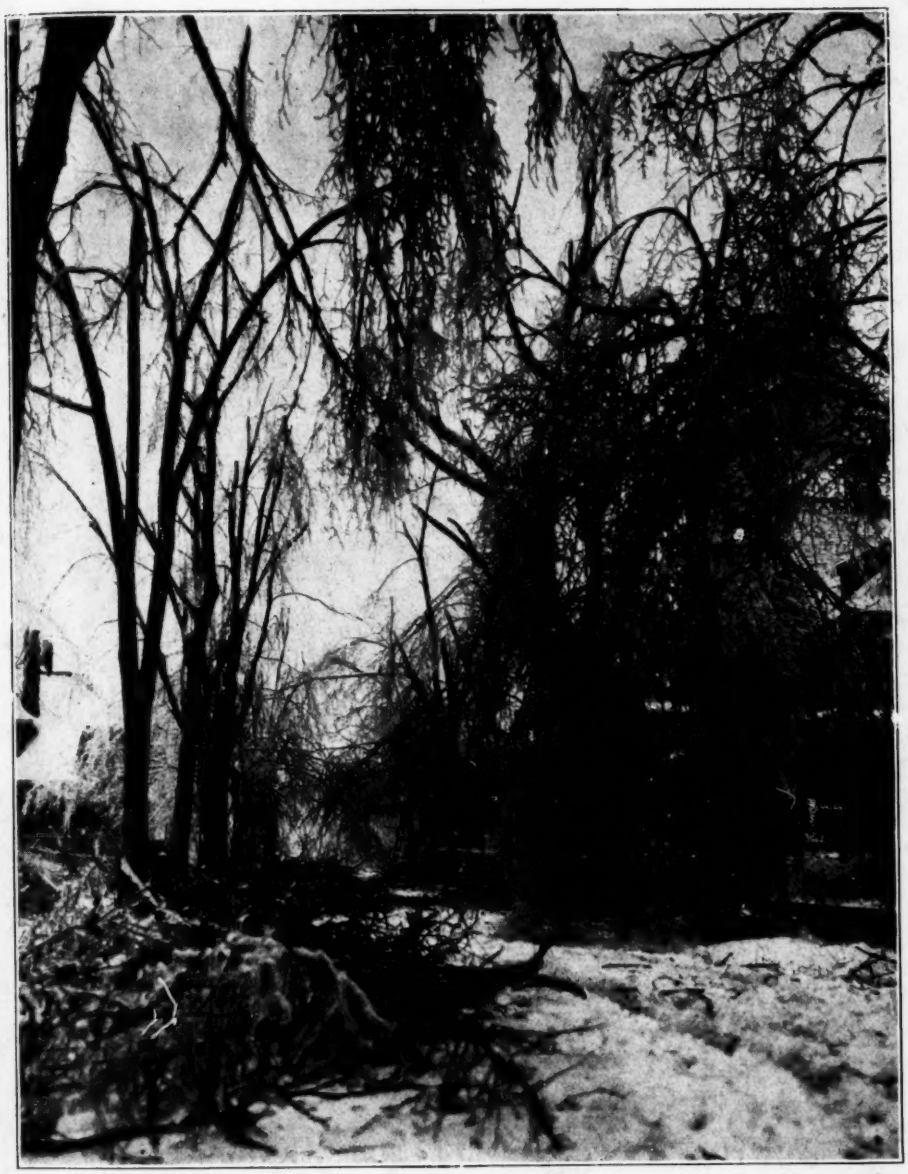

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THE NEW RUMANIAN STATE*

REGIONS AND RESOURCES

E. M. SANDERS
Furzedown College, London

Rumania is one of the most vigorous of the newer states of post-war Europe. Before the war it had shown very considerable progress based in large measure on the rapidly growing importance of oil as feul, of which commodity it possessed notable resources. Since the war the new boundaries have further added to its status (Fig. 1). Except on the south, where the Danube forms the confines, it has advanced in all directions. Its area has been more than doubled (113,600 square miles), and from an awkwardly disposed territory it has become one of the most compact of states.[1] A consideration of the present position of Rumania may be best begun with an account of the natural regions comprised within its new boundaries.

THE NATURAL REGIONS

A general idea of the natural regions of Rumania which are shown in the map (Fig. 2) may be gained by traveling thru the country from the west to the southeast. In such a journey one passes thru a transition region comprising a narrow zone of fertile river plains adjoining Hungary. This is better represented in the south, in the Banat, where intensive farming is practiced. Then a region of high broken contour is circumvented, the Bihar block, along whose borders one may see mining towns, altho the greater part of the population is still working on the land. Next a part of the Transylvanian basin is crossed—undulating country

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[1] Emmanuel de Martonne, La nouvelle Roumanie, *Ann. de Géogr.*, Vol. 30, 1921, pp. 1-31.

composed of a series of fertile basins surrounded by wooded hills. Fron Transylvania one runs into the high mountains, the Carpathians, in places reminiscent of the Alps with bare rugged peaks and unsurmountable slopes but elsewhere, and especially in the central portion of the arc, recalling rather the Juras with wooded slopes and smooth grass-clad summits. Down the other side of the mountains the region of foothills is entered. Here in a smiling

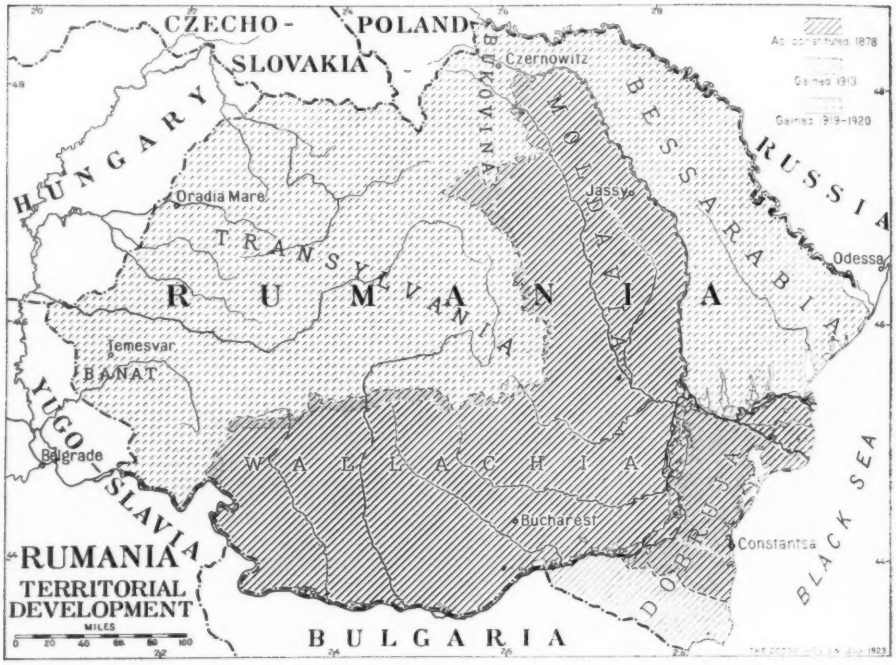

FIG. 1—Map showing the territorial growth of Rumania from the recognition of independence by the Congress of Berlin, 1878, to the establishment of the present boundaries by the treaties of St. Germain with Austria, (1919), Neuilly with Bulgaria (1919), Trianon with Hungary (1920), and the declaration of the Great Powers, London, 1920, recognizing Rumania's claim on Bessarabia. (On earlier political limits see the map "Der rumänische Volksboden und die staatliche Entwickung des Rumänentums," Pl. 35, *Petermanns Mitt.*, Vol. 61, 1915.) The stippled area represents the territory Rumania was required to cede by the Treaty of Bucharest, 1918 (see the map "Gebietsabtretungen Rumäniens an Österreich-Ungarn und Bulgarien," Pl. 8, *Petermanns Mitt.*, Vol. 64, 1918), which treaty, however, was never signed and was abrogated by the conclusion of the war. Scale of map 1:7,000,000.

landscape where numerous valleys are flanked by low wooded hills one may see ancient and modern Rumania living side by side. Ancient Rumania is typified by the illiterate peasant living in his little wooden house so brightly painted, working his own field, in

his own way, carrying on the age-old traditions. Modern Rumania is typified by the oil wells or by the aerial railway that brings down timber from the hills to the paper mills. From the foothills the road runs on to the plains of the Lower Danube—endless flat land for the most part treeless. Wide fields where crops are growing for export flank the roads. On the plain lie cities which serve as collecting and distributing centers for the region. Passing the

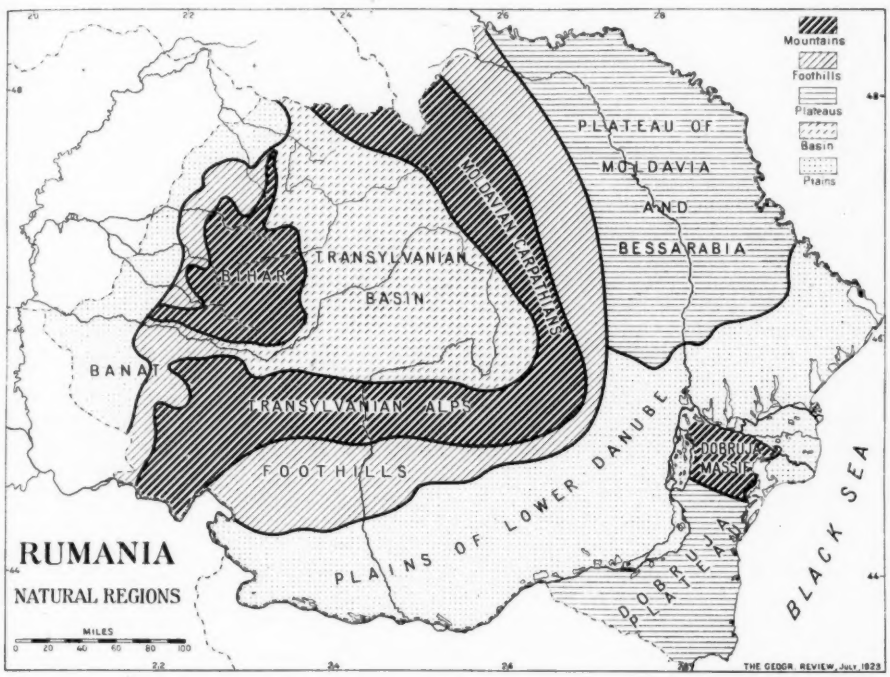

FIG. 2—Map showing the major natural regions of Rumania. The boundaries of the regions are drawn diagrammatically. Based on G. Murgoci and I. Popescu-Voiteshti: Carte géologique de la Roumanie et des contrées limitrophes, 1:2,500,000; G. Murgoci and I. Popa-Burca: Harta Fizica a României, 1:2,500,000 (accompanying Geografia României, New Ser., 3rd edit., Bucharest, 1921); E. de Martonne: Physiographic Map of the Carpathians, 1:2,500,000, *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 6, 1917, Pl. IV; and other sources. Scale of map 1:7,000,000.

towns one goes on again over the never-ending steppe, which becomes more parched as one journeys eastward. The Danube is a welcome change, the neighboring marshes and the many broad branches of the river affording refreshment after the dusty plain. In the southern part of the Dobruja, which succeeds the plain, the lands becomes more accidented without becoming more interesting. A bare limestone plateau crossed by wide dry valleys, as parched

FIG. 3

FIG. 4

FIGS. 3 and 4—Plateau-like summits in the Bucegi massif. Note the aerial railway for carrying down timber. The Bucegi massif, lying between the Dambovitsa and Prahova valleys, is a transition region between the Transylvanian Alps and Moldavian Carpathians. It is especially interesting for the highly varied forms of relief exhibited. (Photographs by M. Harret, Sinaia.)

FIG. 5

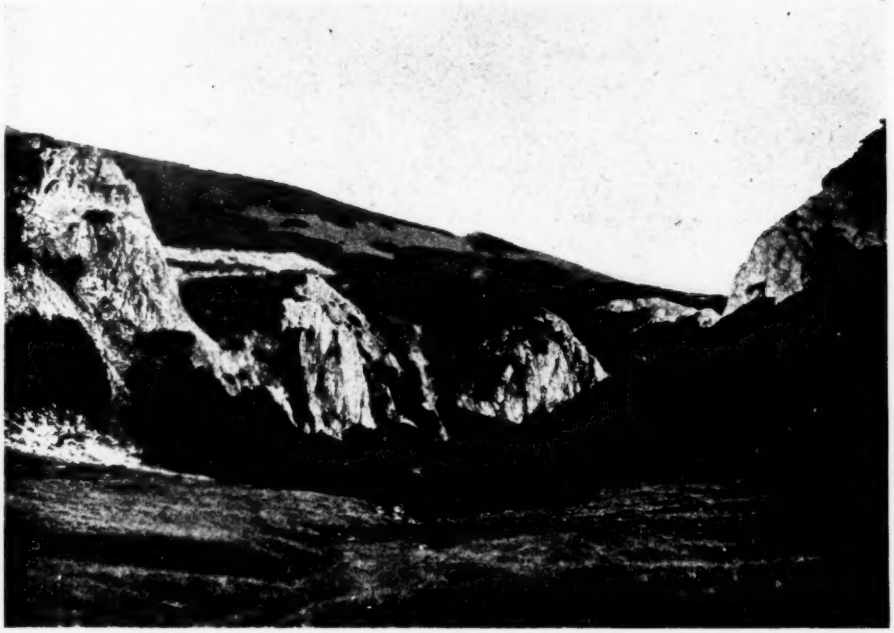

FIG. 6

FIGS. 5 and 6—The Jura type of relief is seen in this part of the Bucegi massif. Figure 5 is in the upper valley of the Jalomitsa. The amphitheater formed by the headwaters of this stream is richly wooded to high altitudes. Figure 6 shows the head of a gorge. (Photographs by M. Harret, Sinaia.)

as the steppe, continues on to the coast. Here modern Rumania meets one again in the grain elevators and oil storage tanks of the growing port of Constantsa.

Let us examine each of these natural regions more closely.

THE MOUNTAINS OF THE CARPATHIAN SYSTEM[2]

The most striking feature of the build of Rumania is the great arc of high mountains which forms the backbone of the country. These mountains of the Carpathian system go under different

FIG. 7—Karst type of country in the Bucegi massif. (Photograph by M. Harret, Sinaia.)

names in different parts. The section running from the Danube eastward, known as the Transylvanian Alps, merits its name by certain similarities with the Alps of Switzerland. Here may be found lofty jagged peaks, indented by glacial cirques, with lakes and cascades. The mountains as a whole, however, are neither so high nor so continuous a barrier. More characteristically they rise to rounded plateau-like summits penetrated by deep valleys, some of which cut a passage thru the chain. East of the Predeal Pass the chain swings northward under the name of the Moldavian Carpathians. Scenery changes as well as direction. The ancient crystallines of the western section are replaced by weaker rocks.

[2] See Emmanuel de Martonne, Recherches sur l'évolution morphologique des Alpes de Transylvanie (Karpates méridionales), *Rev. de Géogr. Annuelle*, Vol. 1, 1906-07, pp. xi-xxi and 1-279; *idem:* The Carpathians: Physiographic Features Controlling Human Geography, *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 3, 1917, pp. 417-437.

Here the Alpine type of scenery is entirely lacking. Altitudes are lower: the mountains present a maze of flat-topped summits with rounded wooded flanks. In the extreme north of the chain, the Mountains of Bukovina, the Alpine type again appears.

Such is the continuous arc of mountains which encircles the basin of Transylvania on its southern and eastern sides. The Bihar massif completes the mountain girdle of the basin on its western side. This block has been left standing while the surrounding land has subsided. A steep escarpment frowns over the valley of the

FIG. 8—Sheep in the Carpathians at an altitude of 7500 feet. The Caraiman plateau, Bucegi massif. (Photograph by M. Harret, Sinaia.)

Mures beyond which there stretch plateau-like summits deeply cut by streams and diversified by volcanic relief.[3]

The mountains of the Carpathian system have been the greatest boon to Rumania in the past, for here her persecuted people have fled in times of trouble. Numberless fertile valleys are still occupied by Rumanian farmers, descendants of these fugitives and representatives of the purest Rumanian type. Not only in the past but at the present the mountain zone is a great asset. The forests which clothe the flanks provide the material for one of the most promising of the growing industries, while the proximity of arid lands such as Egypt and large portions of the Mediterranean

[3] Emmanuel de Martonne, Le massif du Bihar (Roumaine), Étude morphologique, *Ann. de Géogr.*, Vol. 31, 1922, pp. 313-340.

coastal regions make timber valuable as an article of commerce.[4] Further, the mountain streams provide the power to drive many mills. The age-old practice of transhumance, that is, the driving of flocks up to summer pasture and the return to winter in the lower land, still continues and provides a valuable link between the opposing flanks of the chain. Altho the mountains themselves have no valuable mineral wealth except building stone, yet the same processes which formed the mountain chain are responsible for the mineral wealth which is found along their borders.

THE MOUNTAINS OF THE DOBRUJA

Distinct from the Carpathians in structure as well as position is the mountainous mass of the northern Dobruja.[5] It seems to be an isolated overthrust of the same system as the mountains of the Crimea. The summits are wooded, and copper has been mined on the northern edge of the mountains; but their chief commercial importance at present is as a source of building stone.

FOOTHILLS OF THE MOUNTAINS OF THE CARPATHIAN SYSTEM

The Carpathian foothills of Rumania (including the foothills of the Banat), the extent of which is shown in Figure 2, are in many ways the most interesting part of the country. The hills, which rarely exceed 600 meters (2000 feet), are the remains of a dissected plateau. The valleys are from 250 to 100 meters (800 to 300 feet) deep. They are exceedingly fertile and are well shelterd, separated but not isolated by the surrounding wooded heights. Conditions of safety, varied resources, comparative ease in gaining a living, with possibilities of intercommunication have supported a marked development of the characteristic Rumanian culture of the foothills. The costumes, embroidery, legends, and customs in this region bear witness to the individuality and wealth of this culture. The density of population is very great in some of the chief valleys of eastern Wallachia (Mutenia) and in the so-called sub-Carpathian depression which in places separates the mountains proper from the foothills.[6]

[4] According to official Rumanian figures 20 per cent of the export of timber and timber products in 1913 went to Egypt and 12 per cent to Turkey.

[5] See the interesting block diagram by G. Vâlsan: Câmpia Română, *Bul. Soc. Regale Române de Geogr.*, Vol. 36, 1915, pp. 313-568; reference on p. 524.

[6] Emmanuel de Martonne, La Valachie: Essai de monographie géographique, Paris, 1902.

Such has been the rôle of the foothill region in the past; at the present time it still is one of the most important regions, for here is found Rumania's most remarkable asset, petroleum. The characteristic scenery of the foothills, the gay wooden houses of the Rumanian peasant, surrounded by fields of maize, with a flock of sheep on the near-by hillside and the cumbersome slow-moving oxcart, is suddenly replaced by an unsightly compound of temporary premises, with high pumping apparatus, chimneys, and rubbish heaps, while over all there lingers the smell of oil.

The Basin of Transylvania

The region of moderate relief second in importance is the basin of Transylvania. This area of relative depression, which lies however at a fairly high altitude, is itself broken up into a number of basins by low wooded hills. The hills are the remains of a much more accidented region; they have not only been worn down by erosion but also have been half submerged by the eroded material. There is similarity of structure but difference in the proportion of hill to plain as one journeys from north to south in Transylvania. Towards the north the hill gains on the plain, the stretches of flat land become smaller, and the general character of the scenery more undulating.

Transylvania is one of the most productive parts of Rumania and at the same time one of her greatest problems. The climate in summer is hot enough to ripen maize and grapes. The presence of timber, abundance of streams, sufficient rainfall, and fertile soil have always made of Transylvania an attractive region, and people have been drawn in from all the surrounding lands during all periods of history.[7] Mineral wealth has but added to the general diversity of the population. Rumanian hamlets or isolated farms, big German villages, straggling Hungarian towns come into sight one after another; every valley is occupied. To the Rumanian state Transylvania has brought agricultural products, salt, coal, iron and gold mines; but with them there is an ethnic problem of the greatest difficulty.[8]

[7] On the historical aspect see an interesting paper by James Berry, Transylvania and Its Relations to Ancient Dacia and Modern Rumania, *Geogr. Journ.*, Vol. 53, 1919, pp. 129-152. Note especially the map of boundary dikes (Fig. 14) and the photograph (Fig. 10) of one of the characteristic fortified churches of southern Transylvania.

[8] Cf. B. C. Wallis. The Rumanians in Hungary, *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 6, 1918, pp. 156-171.

FIG. 9

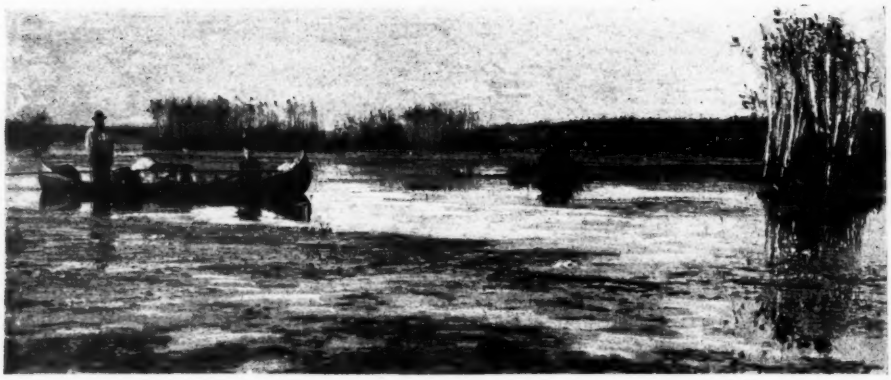

FIG. 10

FIG. 11

FIG. 9—Looking across the Danube valley (head of the delta) towards Ismail. (Photograph by Miss M. Pallis)

FIG. 10—In the Danube delta. Most of the fishermen here are Lipovans, a religious sect emigrated from Russia. (Photograph by Miss M. Pallis)

FIG. 11—Coast of the Black Sea north of Sulina, sea-drifted peat and sand. (Photograph by Miss M. Pallis)

The Plateaus of Moldavia and Bessarabia and the Southern Dobruja

The plateaus of Moldavia and Bessarabia resemble in structure the foothills region; but the climate is more arid, the loess-covered surface is greedy of water, and in consequence a very different landscape is presented. The wooded area is reduced as one journeys toward the east. The valleys also become broader and shallower. Agriculture is exceedingly profitable in the river plains, but the upland surface is far more monotonous and bare than in the foothill region.

The plateau of the southern Dobruja, still more arid, is essentially a steppe country. It is a limestone region characteristically deficient in surface streams, and, as in the country north of the Danube delta, the lack of water is rendered even more distressing by the covering of loess which is raised up as dust by tempestuous storms in the dry hot weather. A serious attempt is being made to develop agriculture in this region, for there is usually enough rain in spring to start the wheat, and the district round Constantsa is now producing sufficient for export.

The Plains

Mountain, hill, and plateau contribute to the wealth of Rumania; but always the plain stands first in importance, for on the plain are to be found the great wheat fields that make of Rumania one of the export granaries of Europe. In addition to the plain of the lower Danube, which continues into Bessarabia, is a narrow strip of plain on the western edge of Transylvania.

Plains of the Transylvanian Border

The plain on the border of Transylvania is the eastern fringe of the Alföld, the great plain of Hungary. The northern portion is comprised by the districts of Maramuresh and Crishana, the southern part is a part of the Banat. Exceedingly fertile, well watered, tilled, and fertilized, it is one of the most productive regions of new Rumania. Here, however, is one of Rumania's grave problems in the large Magyar and other alien elements in the population.

PLAINS OF THE LOWER DANUBE

The plains of the western border comprise but a small area compared with the great plain of the lower Danube. This plain may be divided into eastern and western parts. The western part has sufficient rainfall to support a natural vegetation of rich grass, and here wheat and maize thrive excellently. As one travels towards the east the land becomes drier, and the natural vegetation is poor; but with careful cultivation wheat is profitably raised for the soil is exceedingly rich. In the great plains of Old Rumania one sees large-scale cultivation with machinery which, with the exceeding flatness of the land and the continental type of climate, recalls the Middle West of North America. Bucharest has a temperature regimen similar to that of Chicago, but one degree warmer, and an annual rainfall of 23 inches against 33 inches for the American city. The Danube delta has less than 15 inches of rainfall.[9]

These are the several natural regions comprised within the borders of the New Rumania. They bring together a variety of resources such as constitute the foundation for an exceedingly well-balanced state. We may now inquire as to the manner of their utilization.

UTILIZATION OF NATIONAL RESOURCES

LAND TENURE

We shall start with agriculture, for Rumania is essentially an agricultural country. First a word must be said as to the system of land tenure, as this has recently been modified with far-reaching results.[10]

Until 1864 Rumania had much the same system of land tenure as Russia; that is, a few landowners held the farming peasantry in a state of serfdom. At that date the peasants were freed; and the property of the monasteries, a matter of 4,000,000 acres, was expropriated and distributed among 400,000 peasants. In 1889, after a rising of the peasants, further relief was given by the division of the state lands, comprising about one third of Old Rumania. These

[9] See the rainfall map by E. Otetelizanu and G. D. Elefteriu in *Bul. Soc. Regale Române de Geogr.*, Vol. 39, 1920, facing p. 222.

[10] G. Jonescu-Sisesti, Agrarian Reform and Agricultural Production in Roumania, "*Manchester Guardian Commercial*," *Reconstruction in Europe*, 1922-23, p. 514; *idem:* Land Reform in Roumania, *ibid.*, pp. 373-375.

lands were sold in lots to the peasants. In 1907, however, discontent provoked another revolt, and measures were again taken to reduce the size of the large estates for the benefit of the people. The peasants' holdings were still too small for their needs, and in 1912 and in 1914 there were disorders followed by further measures in the same direction. The status before the war may be summed up thus: large estates (that is estates exceeding 100 hectares, or

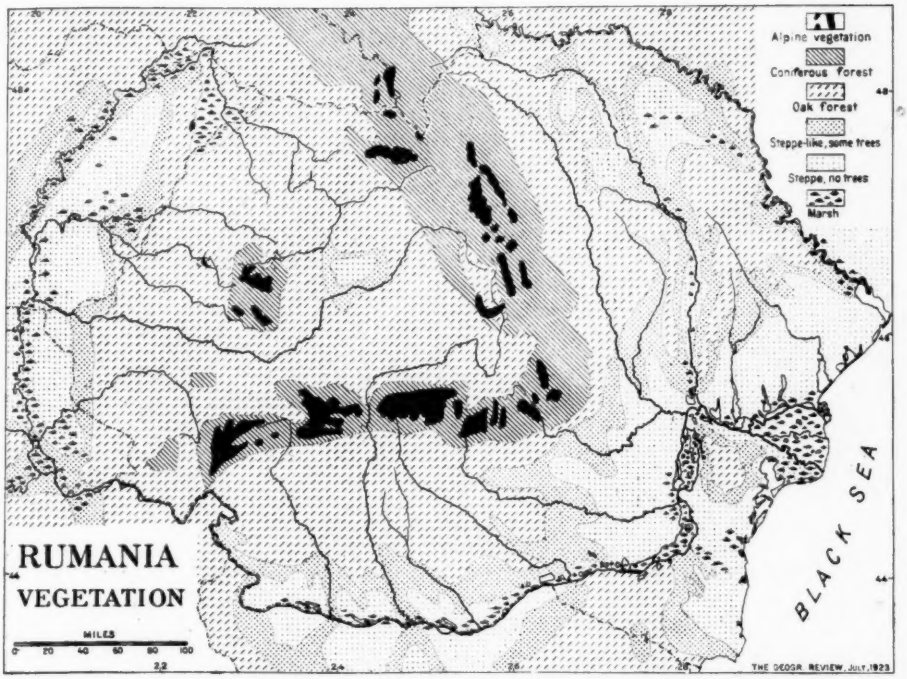

FIG. 12—Map showing the vegetation of Rumania. After G. Murgoci and I. Popa-Burca, Geografia României, New Ser., 3rd edit., Bucharest, 1921, map on p. 104. A larger-scale map (1:1,500,000) of the vegetation of the Old Kingdom after P. Enculescu is given in E. Nitz, Militärgeographische Beschreibung von Rumänien, Berlin, 1919. See also the maps of soils and woods in this volume. Scale 1:7,000,000.

247 acres) formed 48 per cent of the cultivated area in Old Rumania, 45 per cent in Bessarabia, 34 per cent in Transylvania, 60 per cent in Bukovina. At the same time the average holding per family was 3.2 hectares in Old Rumania, 4.4 hectares in Bessarabia, 3.2 hectares in Transylvania, 1.4 hectares in Bukovina.[11] Acts have been passed to reduce the estates and Crown Dominions

[11] La Roumanie économique, 1921, Office de Études et Enquêtes, Ministére de l'Industrie et du Commerce, Bucharest, 1921, p. 10.

in Old Rumania still further, limiting them until they only occupy 8 per cent of the total arable land, and to expropriate the large landowners of Transylvania and Bessarabia.[12] Besides the division of large estates among peasant proprietors measures have been taken to give over large tracts of land to peasant associations for cultivation and common pasturage. The Rumanian Minister of Agriculture, speaking in May, 1922, said that "five million hectares of arable land have passed from the hands of the large owners into those of nearly one and a half millions of heads of peasant families." He added that when the reform was carried thru, "out of a total of 13 million hectares of arable land possessed by Greater Rumania, 12 million will have definitely passed into the hands of

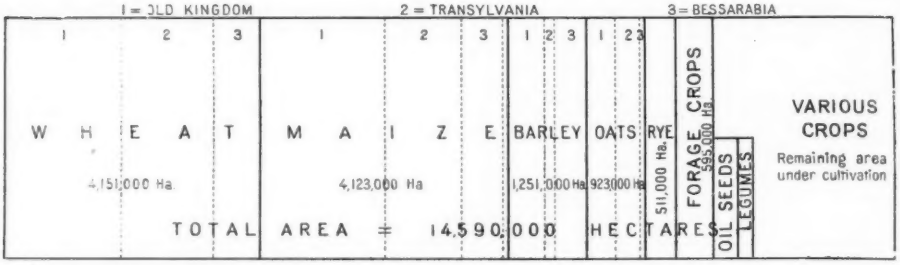

FIG. 13—Diagram showing the acreage of crops in Rumania. Based on a table in "La Roumanie économique," 1921, p. 12 (with correction of an error in the figure for maize in the Old Kingdom).

about 4 million peasants, in separate lots varying from 1 to 5 hectares according to the region and the density of the population. One million hectares only will remain in the hands of about 6000 owners, an average of from 100 to 200 hectares per head. . . ."[13]

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is still the main industry of the country, not only supporting the inhabitants but also furnishing the chief exports. Three quarters of the inhabitants of Rumania are employed in agricultural pursuits, and the greater part of these are engaged in crop raising: 45 per cent of the land is arable. From Figure 13 it is evident that wheat and maize are the two chief crops by a long way. The districts that contribute most are Old Rumania and

[12] *Ibid.*, pp. 24-25.

[13] H. M. Conacher, Agrarian Reform in Eastern Europe, *Internatl. Rev. of Agric. Economics*, Vol. 1 (N. S.), 1923, Rome, pp. 3-18; reference on p. 15.

Transylvania, with Bessarabia a good third. The contribution of Bukovina was in each case too small to plot effectively. The figures from which the diagram was constructed give only the area under each crop; the amount produced per acre varies a great deal according to the fertility of the land and the methods of cultivation. In Bessarabia, for example, the average yield of wheat is not more than 13 hectaliters to a hectare, while in Old Rumania the figure is from 15 to 18; and in parts of Transylvania, for example the Banat and the plains of Arad, the yield is higher still. The average for all Rumania is 15.7.

Wheat is grown largely for export. The staple food of the peasants is maize, which, however, also contributes substantially

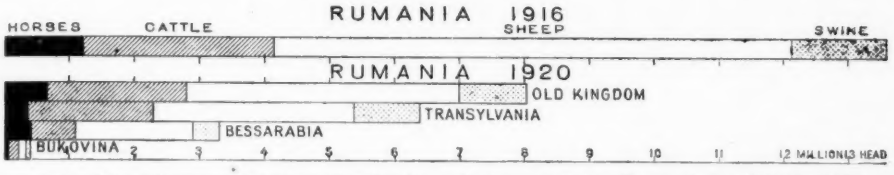

FIG. 14—Diagram showing distribution of live stock in the major political division of Rumania after the war (figure from *Correspondance économique,* Bucharest, July, 1922, pp. 5-6). Figures for the Old Kingdom before entry into the war are given for comparison (from La Roumanie économique, 1921).

to the exports. Division of the large estates among the peasants probably means that more maize will be grown and consumed in the country and less wheat will be grown and exported. Further, a general decrease in yield is inevitable. Even if the peasants could co-operate to use machinery the peasant-proprietor system must make the raising of extensive crops for export difficult, especially while the level of education of the peasant is as low as at present. As a matter of fact the peasant has not yet reached the stage of wishing to use machinery for farm work. Oxen plow and drag his carts, and fertilizers beyond those furnished by the farm itself are unknown to him. The greater yield per acre of the Banat is due to the use of chemical fertilizers, and the large estates of the plains of Old Rumania have furnished proof of the wonderful utility of machinery in dealing with large areas on the plain and in combating the loss that is likely to occur from unfavorable weather. Thus it is to be hoped that in time the peasants may combine and bring their farming methods more up to date. Already some of the peasant co-operative societies have a system of lending certain agricultural machines.

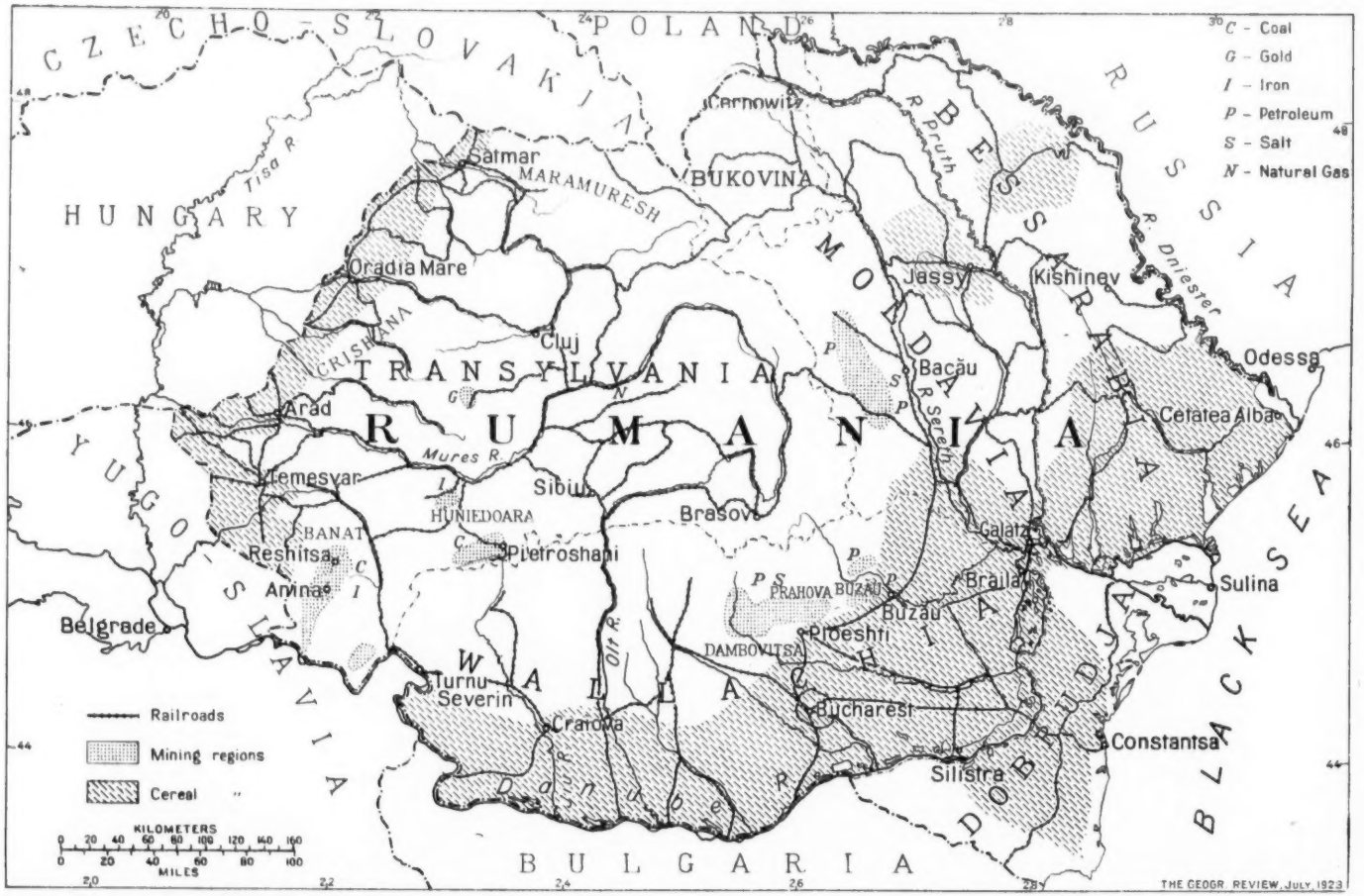

FIG. 15—Map of Rumania showing the chief towns (industrial centers, ports, and grain *entrepôts*), grain-producing areas and mining regions (following in part the map accompanying M. de Martonne's article cited in footnote 1), and railways. Scale approximately 1:5,000,000.

The variability of returns in agriculture is a very serious question. Rumania is on the borderland between well-watered western Europe and the arid lands of southeastern Russia and the Near East. A slight variation in rainfall means serious loss; for example a slight reduction in the spring rains when the young plants are growing or a slight increase in summer when the grain is forming may ruin the crops. In the newer small holdings there is not the same possibility of tiding over a bad year as there was on the large estates. Again it looks as if co-operation were the only way out of the difficulty.

Animals, hides, skins, wool, and hair all figure in the list of exports; but compared with grain they are unimportant. For the people of the country, however, live stock is an essential part of the farm economy, especially oxen, which are the draft animals. The peasants do not eat much meat, and as a rule its production is for the neighboring towns. In the cattle industry, Transylvania leads, if the number of cattle is considered with regard to the number of inhabitants. In 1917 there were 440 cattle for every 1000 inhabitants. Nor did Transylvania suffer in the war in loss of cattle as did Old Rumania, who found herself crippled for want of draft animals when the war came to an end. Transylvania also has more sheep per head than have other parts of the country; she has 790 for every 1000 inhabitants. The relief of a large part of Transylvania makes shepherding a more profitable occupation than agriculture; while the plains of Old Rumania are agricultural land *par excellence,* altho the relation between crop growing and the rearing of animals varies from time to time and from place to place. Bessarabia specializes in the breeding of horses, as is natural on the border of the steppes. The Banat and Bukovina raise quantities of pigs, largely in connection with the growing of maize. All the animal industries date from antiquity, but they received a stimulus from the general era of prosperity enjoyed before the war, for the growth of large towns made an increased supply of meat necessary. Figure 14 shows the actual number of animals in each division and also gives some indication of the loss of draft animals incurred by Old Rumania during the war.

In Old Rumania forests covered less than one-fifth of the land area. Wood, however, has played an important rôle in the domestic life. Absence of wood on the plains was undoubtedly one

FIG. 13—Map of Rumania showing the chief towns (industrial centers, ports, and grain *entrepots*), grain-producing areas and mining regions (following in part the map accompanying M. de Martonne's article cited in footnote 1), and railways. Scale approximately 1:5,000,000.

of the factors delaying settlement there,[14] just as the open prairies failed to attract the early settlers in Illinois.[15] In the new Rumania the proportion of forest is some five per cent greater, the forestal resources of Bukovina (= beechland) and Transylvania, where the forests occupy respectively 43 and 38 per cent of the surface, more than balancing the forestal poverty of Bessarabia.

A passing reference may also be made to the fisheries specially important in the Balta region, that is the 10 to 12 mile wide stretch of river channels, islands, and marshes of the Danube between the heights of Dobruja and the Baragan steppe.

MINERAL WEALTH

The mineral wealth of Rumania includes petroleum, coal, iron, natural gas, gold, salt, copper, iron, and manganese. Of these petroleum is by far the most important. Rumania's chief claim to present world importance is based upon her oil production (see Fig. 16). Many other countries can produce cereals on a large scale, but to few young states is it given to be fourth in the world production of an important fuel (as Rumania was for several years before the war)—a fuel, moreover, whose total amount is strictly limited and for which the demand is enormous and increasing. The greatest amount in pre-war times came from the Prahova field, of which Ploeshti is the center. The returns for March, 1922, show that the Prahova field still produces over 80 per cent.[16] Along the foothills region there are other fields, but of less importance. Dambovitsa is the center of one to the west of Ploeshti, the Buzău field is to the east of the Prahova, while the Bacău field is in the Moldavian foothills further north. It is probable from the geological structure that there are large deposits as yet untouched.[17] The oil belt of Rumania is continuous with that of Galicia, and promising indications have been obtained in Bukovina, for instance.

Figure 16 is of further interest here as a comment on the effects of the war. Failure of the petroleum industry to recover its pre-war standing is explained in part by the fact that more than 1500 wells were put out of action before the Rumanian retreat. In ad-

[14] E. de Martonne, article cited in footnote 1, p. 23.

[15] H. H. Barrows, Geography of the Middle Illinois Valley, *Ill. State Geol. Survey Bull. No. 15*, Urbana, 1910, p. 77.

[16] *Correspondence Economique*, Fourth Year, No. 13, June, 1922, Bucharest, p. 24.

[17] L. Mrazec, Compte Rendu Congrès Internatl. du Petrole, 1907.

dition to this deliberate destruction, the enemy before they departed inflicted great loss on the plant necessary to the oil industry. Reservoirs capable of holding 1,000,000 cubic meters were destroyed, about 1000 wells were burnt out, and refining and pumping plant to the value of 400,000,000 lei (in normal exchange 25.22 lei = £1 sterling) was destroyed. The difficulties of reconstruction in this industry are enormous. All Central Europe from which material and workmen could be drawn has been in the throes of terrible distress. In addition lack of rolling stock and insufficient means of transportation generally (the pipe line to Constantsa has been out of operation) have made it impossible to get that which has been produced to the coast for export. Not only has the amount for export been limited but the amount needed for home consumption has not been forthcoming. This is the more serious as up to now the railways and the manufactures (which are as yet in their infancy) have used oil as fuel. Now it is proposed to substitute coal for the railroads, while the natural gas that is being worked will probably supplement oil in the factories.

Natural gas is found in the basin of Transylvania in the basin of the upper Mures (Maros), east of Turda. It occurs at an average depth of 250 meters and at a pressure which allows the use of pipe lines, of which there are three. In November, 1922, there were already as many as 40 borings.

The calorific value of the natural gas that can be produced each year in Transylvania is greater than that of the coal produced in the whole of Rumania in a year. The cost of securing the gas is one tenth that of securing coal, and its transportation is easier. Engines made for coal fuel can be readily adapted to the use of gas. It seems probable, then, that there may be a change in the manufacturing centers of the country. At any rate here is another powerful ally for industry in Rumania.

Old Rumania was lacking in the elements which most favor the development of manufactures, that is coal and iron; but the new boundaries include the coal fields and iron mines of Transylvania and the Banat. The coal fields with the lignite workings in the foothills of Old Rumania give about 4,000,000 tons of coal—not a great quantity but sufficient to reduce in considerable measure the costs of importation. Besides the useful if not extensive deposits of iron ore there are established metallurgical industries in Hunie**doara** (Transylvania) and Reshitsa-Anina (Banat). In the Bihar

is an ancient gold-mining industry with deposits reputed to be the richest in Europe next to those of the Urals. The Transylvanian salt deposits similar to those on the eastern side of the Carpathians double the already excellent resources of the Old Kingdom in this mineral. Mention may also be made of the large deposits of mica discovered in 1918 in the foothills of Wallachia.

COMMERCE

From the foregoing it is evident that Rumania is well equipped with the materials that go to build up commerce. The products of the natural regions are sufficiently varied to encourage domestic trade, while certain raw materials are produced in excess and can be exported in exchange for manufactured goods. Analysis of

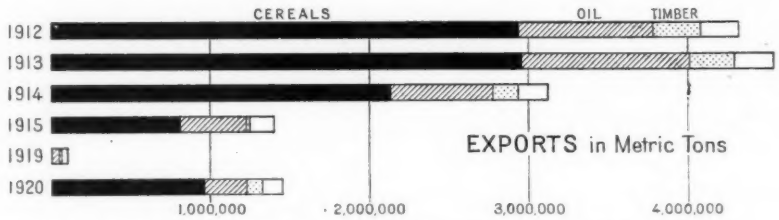

FIG. 16—Diagram showing the annual exports of Rumania by weight.

the commercial status of the new Rumania, however, is not easy. The Old Kingdom before the war showed a satisfactory development which we shall first examine.

The most striking feature of the Rumanian export trade is the preponderance of agricultural produce.[18] In 1913 grain formed two-thirds of the total value. During the period 1909-1914 Rumania ranked fifth among the wheat-exporting countries of the world and second in the exportation of maize. Oil is next in importance, at its period of maximum development accounting for one-sixth of the total value. The only other item on the list worth separate mention is lumber, amounting in 1913 to one-eighteenth of the total value.

The most striking feature of the import trade is the preponderance of manufactured goods, which in 1913 composed five-sixths of the total value. A hopeful sign for the industrial future of the

[18] See Clive Day, The Pre-War Commerce and the Commercial Approaches of the Balkan Peninsula, *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 9, 1920, pp. 277-298. The last really normal commercial year for the Balkan countries and Rumania is 1911—i. e. before the Balkan Wars.

country is the prominence of metal goods and machinery, which together constituted over one-third of the total. Another important group is that of the textiles, in which cotton yarn and cloth are the outstanding items, the luxury products such as linen and silk being bought in relatively small quantities. There is only a small proportion of food luxuries—sugar, coffee, and tea—and an exceedingly small importation of raw materials. Rumania is still essentially a peasant state, and the peasant needs serviceable clothes and agricultural equipment but has neither taste nor money for foreign food or clothes. Petroleum exploitation explains a good deal of the importation under the classification of metal goods and machinery, which are also required by the mines and the growing industries; but the manufactures for the most part find their raw material in Rumania itself.

EFFECTS OF THE WAR ON RUMANIA'S COMMERCE

Figure 16 also shows the beginnings of the post-war recovery. Altho there has been a continued gain since 1919, direct and indirect results of the war still render conditions abnormal. War losses are still felt: above all, the loss of draft animals and agricultural equipment, the loss of rolling stock on the railroads, and destruction of the permanent way. As has already been pointed out, land distribution has had the immediate effect of lessening production. The state of exchange has reduced the purchasing power of the country; and, in addition, the acquisition of the new territories has created a currency problem "more easily imagined than described."[19] Old currents of trade have been disturbed by the erection of new frontiers. An instance is given by Professor de Martonne who describes a paradoxical situation in Transylvania, which is "too rich" in some of its resources. Closing of the Hungarian frontier and difficulty of transportation to Old Rumania have brought about such surplus of cattle that they are sold on the spot at very low prices.[20]

The export trade of Rumania has always been subject to fluctuations following the character of the harvest. In 1920 and 1921 Rumania, in common with other countries of eastern and south-

[19] Alexander Adams, Report on Economic Conditions in Roumania, April, 1921, Dept. of Overseas Trade, London, 1921, p. 24.

[20] Emmanuel de Martonne, La Transylvanie, *Bull. Soc. de Géogr. de Lille*, Vol. 64, 1922, pp. 93-102; reference on p. 98.

eastern Europe, suffered from drought; and export of wheat was forbidden by the government. Again, the reduction of petroleum exports is due not only to general conditions in the industry but to increased domestic demands. It is estimated that the addition of territory will call for a total domestic consumption of 70 per cent of production.

Currents of Trade

Before the war about three-fifths of Rumania's imports came from Austria-Hungary and Germany and about a quarter from the other industrial countries of western Europe (Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Holland). Of the exports only one-eighth went to the former group; two-thirds went to the countries of the latter group, and of them Belgium took more than half, Antwerp acting as an entrepôt for further distribution. Germany and Austria are now far less favorably situated for trade with Rumania. Where Germany formerly held a privileged position she now faces the customs barriers of the new Slav states. Austria has lost her chief industrial districts to one of these states. In this connection note may be made of the importance of the commercial treaties recently concluded by Rumania with Czechoslovakia and Poland.

Professor Day in his study of Balkan commerce[21] pointed out that a surprising proportion of trade between Austria-Hungary and Germany and Rumania was carried on by rail (see accompanying table).

Table I—Trade of Rumania, 1912

	With Germany			With Austria-Hungary		
	Rail	River	Sea	Rail	River	Sea
Exports	5%	5%	90%	87%	5%	8%
Imports	52%	2%	46%	92%	7%	1%

Chaotic conditions of land transport as well as political considerations are likely to cause a diminution in these former trade currents. On the contrary, trade by river and sea is likely to gain. In the Danube Rumania possesses an important commercial artery susceptible of greatly increased utilization. Trade on the Danube has suffered both from political discrimination and physical disabilities. In the past it was hindered by the tariff imposed by

[21] See footnote 18.

Austria-Hungary to encourage the port of Trieste. Improvement of the waterway is needed particularly in the Iron Gates section, a matter in which Rumania is now still more interested because of the extension of her riparian territory. She will seek to divert exports from the Banat downstream from the former course upstream to Budapest.

In Old Rumania traffic on the Danube, which increased steadily downstream from Turnu Severin, was principally in grain. Sixty per cent of the grain was shipped from Sulina at the mouth of the channel regulated by the Danube Commission. Since 1920, however, the tendency has been to ship more grain from Briâla, which like Galatz is not only a shipping town but also a collecting center. Constantsa also shares in the grain trade and is the petroleum port with a special petroleum basin, storage tanks, and pipe lines that formerly crossed the Danube by the Cernavoda bridge. This famous bridge, destroyed during the war and reopened in 1922, also gives Constantsa rail connection with the trunk line running west thru Bucharest and north thru Buzeu to Cernowitz. While the Danube ports are usually ice-bound during the winter, Constantsa has the advantage of being open thruout the entire year.

The new territories are better equipped with railroads than the old kingdom except in the case of Bessarabia, where particular difficulty has been experienced in grain shipment. The lines here were of different gauge and tended to converge on Odessa but normalization of guage and building of new lines is in progress. Nor has it been possible to take full advantage of the rivers, Pruth and Dniester, which like all the other Rumanian waterways are suffering from lack of equipment lost during the war.

With the rehabilitation of waterways and railroads Rumania's commerce cannot fail to develop. She occupies a geographical position highly favorable for international trade, lying contiguous to the crossroad between western Europe and the Near East and the Russian lands and the Mediterranean.

The Population

In considering the future of Rumania two aspects of the human element call for special mention here, the problem of education and that of the alien population.

While the new Rumania probably includes a somewhat greater proportion of urban population, the vast majority still remains

rural. Out of 16 to 17 millions,[22] more than 14 millions are villagers; and of the town dwellers only about half are engaged in manufacturing and mining. When one reflects that the Rumanian peasants are poorly educated and in general ignorant of modern methods of farming and that they have in their hands the greatest asset of the country, the importance of their education is seen to be immense. Another problem in education is presented by the growth of the state in industry and commerce. The present exploitation of oil and other minerals is largely carried on by foreigners—an unsatisfactory condition for national progress. Promise of improvement in this direction, however, is given by the opportunities now offered by the universities (Bucharest, Jassy, Cluj, Cernowitz) and the technical institutes. The proposed budget shows that the Rumanian government is seriously occupied with the problem of national education.[23]

The physical complexity of this country at the meeting point of Balkans, Central Europe, and the Russian plains has had a bearing on the present state of ethnic complexity.[24] Surrounding the solid Rumanian block of the Old Kingdom is a belt of largely mixed population. Poles, Ruthenians, Little Russians, Tatars, Turks, Greeks, Bulgars, Serbs, Slovaks, Hungarians appear in succession and overlapping as one goes round the circle. The Hungarians known as Szeklers form a solid group in the heart of Transylvania, and Germans are widely distributed thruout the mixed zone; Jews are most numerous in the northern part of the country and in the towns. The alien element amounts to between 20 and 25 per cent of the population of the entire country. From this point of view Rumania has on her hands a more complex minorities problem than any other European state, and her treatment of the matter may be looked upon as a test case of the form of treaty devised for its solution.

[22] The *Bul. Soc. Reg. Române de Geogr.*, Vol. 39, 1920, p. 381, gives the population of Rumania as 16,262,000 distributed thus: Old Kingdom, 7,897,000; Bessarabia, 2,345,000; Bukovina, 812,000; Transylvania, 2,686,000; Crishana, 1,145,000; Maramuresh, 467,000; Banat, 910,000.

[23] Aristide Blank, The Public Finances of Rumania, "*Manchester Guardian Commercial,*" *Reconstruction in Europe*, 1922-23, pp. 292-295.

[24] For a study of the ethnic composition of the new Rumania see Emmanuel de Martonne: Essai de carte ethnographique des pays Roumains, *Ann. de Géogr.*, Vol. 29, 1920, pp. 81-98, and also the article of the same author cited in footnote 1.

NAMES OF COUNTRIES

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Place names are a chaos for two reasons: a dim past has left us a heritage of old names; and when new lands were named—and this was done on a grand scale in the days of discovery and exploration by individuals of different nationalities—there was no system. It may be of interest to account for a number of these names, and by arranging them in groups, bring some order into this confusion.

HOLY DAYS

When the use of the compass ushered in the age of discovery, most of the bold navigators were ardent Catholics; on that account the day of discovery, especially if it was a saints day or a more important holiday, influenced the naming. Islands in particular have frequently been called by the names of saints. Among Lesser Antilles we have St. Martin, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Christopher, and St. Bartholomew; and the Virgin Island group has St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix, or Santa Cruz (Holy Cross). St. Helena lies east of Africa, St. Agnes among the Scilly Islands, St. Eustatius in the Dutch West Indies, St. Paul in the Indian Ocean and St. Pierre near Newfoundland. The original name of Prince Edward's Island was Isle St. Jean. The Dutch admiral Roggeveen reached a lonely island in the Pacific, April 6, 1722; as this happened to be Easter Sunday the place was called Easter Island. When Vasco da Gama had sailed round the southern end of Africa, he came in sight of land on Christmas day 1597; wherefore he called the land Terra Natalis; it is called Natal.

NAMES OF PLANTS

Brazil might have had a very different name if the one applied by the navigator who claimed the land for his sovereign had persisted. Cabral when commissioned by the king of Portugal to sail to India, tried as it seemed to reach his goal by a westerly course; and eventually he did reach India, but not by sailing west. It was a long way across the Atlantic, and he reached land of which he took possession in the name of his king; and as it happened to be Good Friday he erected a large cross on the shore

and called the land Ilha da Vera Cruz, changed to Terra da Vera Cruz when they found it was mainland. The "Land of the True Cross" did not keep this fine name long. The sailors brought from there logs of wood of a yellowish red color which reminded them of glowing embers or brasa; and after this valuable dye-wood (brasil wood) the country was permanently called Brazil. Ilha da Madeira means the Isle of Woods; and Madeira is so called because of the woods that once covered it. The first discoverers of America, the Northmen, called part of it Vinland, because of its grapes; and the Europeans called the East Indies the Spice Islands. Yucatan is said to have gotten its name from the yucca which grows there in abundance. Among our states we have Maine the Pine Tree State, South Carolina the Palmetto State, Ohio the Buckeye State, Mississippi the Magnolia State, Alabama the Cotton State, Kansas the Sunflower State, Kentucky the Bluegrass State, and Nevada the Sage-brush State.

Names of Animals

In Central America there is a Mosquito Coast, which name is well deserved. Capri, or Caprera, is the goat island; thus Garibaldi's retreat and the pretty island at Niagara Falls have the same name. Ordinary turtles are responsible for the name Tortugas; and the giant turtles gave their Spanish name to the Galapagos Islands. Kamerun was given the name of the river which earned its Portuguese appellation of Rio dos Camarãos, because of its numerous crabs. In this country Louisiana is the Pelican State, Delaware the Blue Hen State, Minnesota the Gopher State, Wisconsin the Badger State, Michigan the Wolverine State, Oregon the Beaver State and Arkansas the Bear State.

Special Characteristics

When toward the close of October, 1520, Magellan entered the strait which bears his name, it was night, and the natives on the south shore had lighted fires; this led him to call the land Tierra del Fuego or Fireland; for as many still conclude he ascribed this appearance to volcanic action. Because of its climate, Iceland is well named, altho it might also be called Fireland because of its volcanic nature. How did Greenland get its name? Because it is not green. The discoverer, Eric the Red, wished to lure his

people to the new land and therefore represented the country as an emerald isle. Why Labrador is called by a name derived from a Spanish word meaning work is a mystery; the land is unfit for agriculture, and hence it is really a Terra Laboris in the sense that even with hard work little can be gotten out of it. England is often called Albion because of the white chalk cliffs on its southern shore. The term Netherlands explains itself. Montenegro and our Black Hills have practically the same name. Large tracts of land are often given names expressive of their nature; thus if level the name may mean field or meadow. Field in Latin is campus, hence the names Campania, Champagne, etc. There are prairies, (French for meadow), in western North America, (Illinois is known as the Prairie State), llanos in the north of South America, pampas in the southern part, the veldt, (Dutch for field), in South Africa, steppes and tundras in Asia and Europe. Corresponding to the tundras of Asia are the barren lands of North America; bad lands are the tracts rendered useless by erosion. Countries made unproductive by solution and characterized by sink holes, caves, disappearing and reappearing rivers and drainage largely subterranean, like the limestone and dolomite ridges east of the Adriatic are known as karst regions. In the valley of the Amazon and its tributaries are dense woods known as selvas, derived from silva, the Latin for a wood. Pennsylvania means Penn's woodland.

Names of Prominent Persons

Instead of looking for salient features of a new country it was more convenient and often more advantageous to the explorer to name the land in honor of some prominent person. When Abel Tasman discovered the large island south of Australia, he called it Vandiemensland after Governor Van Diemen; it is now officially known as Tasmania. In 1773 Kerguelen discovered the large desolate island in the southern part of the Indian Ocean. Cook in 1776 reached the same island and intended very properly to call it Desolation Land, when he found that it had been discovered three years before; so he gave the dreary place the name of Kerguelenland. Cecil Rhodes will be remembered by Rhodesia in South Africa. Two of the states of the Australian Commonwealth have practically the same name; for Victoria and Queensland were named for the same person. Alberta received one of the names of

Princess Louise Caroline Alberta, daughter of Queen Victoria and wife of the Marquis of Lorne, at one time Governor-General of Canada. Prince Edward Island, however, has nothing in its name of the English Royal family. Up to 1798 it was known by the French name Isle St. Jean; its present name was bestowed in honor of the Duke of Kent, then commander of the British troops of North America. In 1825, part of Peru declared its independence, and to honor the libertador Simon Bolivar, took the name of Bolivia. The Philippines were called St. Lazarus Islands by their discoverer Magellan; later they received their present name in honor of Felipe, then Prince of Asturia and heir to the Spanish throne, afterwards Philip II, of Spain. Names of persons abound in the names of lands about both poles of the earth. We are so used to the names of our states, that we hardly notice the names of persons among them. There is Virginia, named for the so-called Virgin Queen Elizabeth, North and South Carolina, for Charles I, Maryland for his Queen Henrietta Maria, Georgia for George II and Louisiana for Louis XIV. After such a display of royalty in a republic it is pleasant to recall the name of the most northwestern state of the union and that of the Keystone state.

NAMES OF OLDER COUNTRIES

In 1642 Tasman discovered the large islands which he called New Zealand after the Dutch country Zealand. While this name lasted, the name New Holland by which the island continent was long known, was changed to Australia. When Captain Cook in 1770 sailed along the southeastern coast of Australia, he imagined that the coast line resembled that of South Wales; hence he called the country New South Wales. The United States of Colombia was formerly called New Granada. Canada was known as New France under the French rule, and two of its provinces are still called Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. In this country we have New England, New Hampshire, New Jersey and New Mexico; and what was once New Netherlands is now New York.

NAMES OF CITIES

The names of ancient cities are usually better known than those of the lands in which they were located; with Athens in Attica, Sparta in Lacedæmon, Thebes in Boeotia, and Rome in Latium we remember the name of the city far better than that of the

country. Babylon, Carthage and Rome gave their names to their extended empires. The prominence of cities is accentuated by the fact that many a territory is known by the name of the chief city. Mexico is called by the name of its capital and so are a number of the Mexican states. This is also true of some of the Brazilian states, most of the provinces of Spain, many of the governments of Russia, (both European and Asiatic), some of the divisions of Norway, Holland and Belgium, and a number of the Swiss cantons. The name of Switzerland, itself, is derived from that of one of the original cantons; and as this had the name of its chief town, the whole country is called by a city name. In 1581 the Cossack leader Yermak conquered Sibir, a town on the Irtisch River in northern Asia; and the whole vast domain has since been known as Siberia. Oporto is next to Lisbon the most important town of the country west of Spain; Oporto or Porto was anciently called Portus Cale and later Portocale, whence the name of Portugal. The province Quebec has the name of one of its chief towns, and in our federation we have the examples of Oklahoma and New York.

River Countries

The running waters are of the utmost importance to mankind, for nothing can live without water. The importance of the drainage channels is emphasized by the fact that whole regions and countries have taken their names. We speak of the Plains of the Po, the valley of the Nile, the Mississippi valley, the basin of St. Lawrence. Mesopotamia from two Greek words for "intermediate" and "river" is still the name of the land between the Euphrates and the Tigris rivers. Pendschab or Punjab is the "five stream" district in northwest India named for the five branches of the Indus. India itself has the name of the Indus, because this was the first great stream the Europeans met in pushing East. Aegyptus is said to have been the ancient name of the Nile; and as this stream is the very life of the land it drains Egypt is properly named. There are several instances of river countries in Africa; thus the Congo river has conferred its name on French Congo and Belgian Congo, the Niger on Nigeria, the Kamerun on Kamerun, the Senegal on Senegal, and the Senegal and Gambia combined on Senegambia. In Siberia four governments—Tobolsk, Tomsk, Yeniseisk, Irkutsk—are named for their chief towns; but as these have river names, the streams are as responsible as in the

case of the Amur province. Of the eighty-seven departments into which France is artificially divided, a very large number, as for example, Seine, Marne, Loire, Garonne, Gironde, Rhone, Soane, etc. have been named for their rivers. While it is evident that Paraguay and Uruguay have the names of their border streams, it is not so plain whence Argentina derived its name. In 1525 Sebastian Cabot at the head of a Spanish squadron entered the large stream in southeast South America, hoping that it would afford a passage to the Pacific. He soon found that he was in fresh water; but he continued his exploration and because of the silver ornaments worn by the natives he called the river system Rio de la Plata. Plata is the Spanish for silver, while the Latin word is argentum; so the silver country is drained by the silver stream. In Brazil, the states Amazonas and Parana have river names, while an imaginary river Rio Grande do Sul, (the outlet of a lagoon was mistaken for the mouth of a large river), has given its name to the state and its chief city. There is in Canada a river and a province Saskatchewan and a river and a territory Yukon. It is remarkable how many of our states have the same names as rivers. The rivers existed before the political organizations and as a rule were named before them. Here is a list: Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Colorado, Oregon, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Kentucky, Arkansas, Nebraska, etc. Oregon is included in this list because the river forming the boundary between it and its neighbor to the north, now the Columbia, was originally called the Oregon.

HOMES OF THE OCCUPANTS

While water is of the utmost importance, the land, as the home of man, is after all the main thing. We have England, the land of the Angles, or English (French-Angleterre), Scotland, Ireland, Finland, etc. In very many cases, as if to accentuate the name of the occupants, the suffix land is replaced by the shorter *ia* or the still shorter *y*. We do not say Anglia or Scotia, but we do say Persia, the land of the Persians, Russia, the land of the Russians, Arabia, Bulgaria and many more. It is not, however, Germania but Germany, not Hungaria but Hungary, altho in the adjective form we say Hungarian music; and poetically speaking we may say Araby's perfumes, while the proper adjectives Arabian and Arabic are used almost interchangeably. The name of a country may

record the fact that the land was once occupied by a long forgotten tribe. When the chosen people conquered the Holy Land, they wrested it from the Philistines, from whose name the word Palestine is derived. The north of Italy was conquered by the Longbeards, and the land was known as Longobardia now Lombardy; and further south in ancient days were the Etruscans and part of their country is still known as Tuscany. The southern part of Spain is Andalusia, for it was conquered by the Vandals, and then called Vandalitia; to the east of Andalusia, the Goths and Alani jointly took possession and gave to the land the name of Gotalania, whence the term Catalonia. In France the territories Normandy and Brittany remind us of the Normans and the Britons. The southern end of South America was occupied by a people reputed to be giants; the Spaniards called them Patagones or Big Feet, and their country was Patagonia. In the Persian language, the word "stan" is equivalent to land, hence the names of Afghanistan, where the Afghans stay or stand, Belutchistan, Turkistan, Kurdistan, etc. In all these words, there seems to be implied more than mere occupation, which might be temporary: the land was or is the people's home. While in the instances given, the people confer their name on the country, in the more recently named countries this is reversed, and the people take the name of their native land, as in the case of America.

AMERICA

America is not so called because it is the home of the Americans—a term which requires definition—but it is generally accepted that it was named for the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci, latinized Americus Vespuccius. Some feel disposed keenly to regret the naming of the western continent, and to regard Vespucci with disfavor and even contempt. This is not altogether fair. Vespucci was among the first to follow in the wake of Columbus; and it is fairly established that he took a prominent part in not less than five transatlantic voyages of discovery. Besides being a skillful navigator, Vespucci was a keen observer and an able writer. His letters to his Florentine friends were translated into Latin and widely read; and to the reading public of Europe, these letters were the first information concerning the new land. When a map appeared, drawn according to Vespucci's data, and marked with a "Terra America," i. e., land of Americus, the name was fixed.

WHY NOT COLUMBIA?

We may be right in thinking that the honor bestowed on Vespucci was greater than he deserved; but so far as Columbus is concerned, this is not one of "the spurns that patient merit of the unworthy takes"; for it may truly be said that the naming of the western continent America instead of Columbia was due fully as much to the character and behavior of Columbus as to the fact that Vespucci was the better advertiser. Columbus was a man of one idea: the rotundity of the earth and the consequent westerly course to India. This one idea gave him the courage to apply at the leading courts, the persuasive power to win the support of men more learned than he, and the persistence to push to the goal. While his dominating idea and his obstinacy made him the discoverer of the New World, they prevented him from seeing, as some of his followers—for example de la Cosa and Vespucci—clearly did, the real meaning of his achievement. He saw everything warped by his fixed notion. When October 28, 1492, he discovered Cuba, he at first thought it was Japan. On his second voyage he discovered Jamaica and he insisted that they were in a province of China. When on his fourth and last voyage, he reached Yucatan, the peculiar Maya civilization there revived his hopes of reaching Marco Polo's Cathay. How could he give a name to a land that he firmly believed was Asia?

NAMES BESTOWED BY COLUMBUS

The senseless name of Indians which he gave the aborigines may outlive the race; and the Antilles will continue to be known as the West Indies. While these meaningless names persisted, a number of others which he gave did not last. What land Columbus first set foot on is not known. The natives called it Guanahani; he named it San Salvador; it is believed to be one of the Bahamas called Watling Island. The large island which he named Española—Hispaniola or little Spain—after the country he served, is now called Hayti; and the island to which he applied the good old Spanish name of Santiago has long been known as Jamaica.

COLUMBIA

Columbus was an Italian from Genoa, and his real name was Christoforo Colombo, latinized Columbus, while the Spaniards called him Don Christoval Colon. Posterity has seemingly tried

to make amends for the naming of America by giving to a number of smaller places the name of Columbus. The northwestern country of South America, formerly called New Granada, is now the United States of Colombia. The Pacific province of Canada is British Columbia and the federal territory containing the capital city Washington is the District of Columbia. The great river of our North West, flowing between the states of Oregon and Washington, once called the Oregon, is now the Columbia. The northern or Atlantic port of the Panama Canal formerly called Aspinwall, is now the important town of Colon. In about two thirds of the states of the Union there are towns or counties or both named Columbus, Columbia, Columbiana or combinations such as Columbus Grove, etc. Thus in Ohio the capital is Columbus and there is a Columbiana County. The capital of South Carolina is Columbia; and Columbia, Missouri, is the home of the State University of Missouri.

A Country Without A Name

In his history of New York Irving says: "nor shall I undertake to prove that this country should have been called Colonia, after his name, that being notoriously self evident." Colonia was the name of many a Roman settlement or colony and we do not wish to be so considered. We missed our opportunity by allowing New Granada to get ahead of us. With a lordly arrogance altogether inconsistent with a due regard for the rights and feelings of other nations, we call our country the United States of America —we do not even specify North America—and ourselves Americans. Who are Americans? In the first place the red men wrongly called Indians and treated as intruders by the real intruders, whose descendants born in the western world are usually called Americans. American is a blanket term covering Mexicans, Peruvians, Canadians, Brazilians and many more. Canada, Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, Brazil and the rest are federations, i. e., United States of America, just as well as our country. It may sound strange but nevertheless it is true, that while each state of the Union has a name and most states are supplied with nicknames or popular names, the country at large is nameless.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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It is the purpose of this brief discussion to set up a list of general objectives for geography and to present certain methods and devices by which these objectives may be realized. In order to teach most effectively the teacher should have clearly formulated a list of definite objectives for each subject she teaches. The objectives for geography should consist of a series of general objectives and intermediate objectives which are to be realized from day to day or from week to week. From the literature on the subject and from experience the writer has prepared the following series of general objectives.

INFORMATIONAL GEOGRAPHY

1. Place location. The pupil should first learn the location of the various points of the region in which he lives. In Chicago the pupil should first study the place geography of Chicago and its surrounding territory. Later a general idea of the location of important places beyond the possible observation of the pupil should be studied.

2. Knowledge of important industries and their location. The pupil should first learn about the industries which are near at hand and later should branch out into wider fields, studying the location and extent of the leading industries of the country and of the world.

3. Knowledge of races. The pupil should know the different races as to their habitat, mode of living, customs, etc.

4. Interdependence of groups. The pupil should learn the source of the materials which supply his daily wants as to food, shelter, and the comforts of life. Thru this study he may be led to understand the interdependence of groups and the commercial relations between cities, regions, and nations.

5. Climatic conditions. The pupil should have a comprehensive knowledge of the climatic conditions of various parts of the globe and their effect on man.

6. General Information. The pupil should have such knowledge as will enable him to understand allusions to geography in the newspapers and magazines.

Causal Geography

1. The pupil should understand the reasons for the location of various industries. He should be able to answer such questions as; Why is New England a manufacturing district? Why are the steel mills located at South Chicago and Gary? Why are the middle western states suitable for agriculture and stock raising?

2. The pupil should know where the natural resources of the country are located. He should be able to answer such questions as; Where are the most valuable coal deposits, the iron deposits, forests, etc?

3. The pupil should understand the necessity for conservation of our natural resources thru being taught the consequences of destruction or careless use of these resources.

4. The pupil should understand the cause for differences in occupations of people living in different parts of our own country and different parts of the world.

5. Pupils should have an understanding of the influence of geographical conditions on political conditions. The subjects of geography and history should be correlated so as to show the pupil the influence of geography on historical events.

Skills and Habits

1. The pupil should develop such skill that he will be able to use maps, atlases, and geographical books in school and out.

2. The pupil should develop skill in applying the information which he acquires to the solving of problems.

3. The pupil should acquire skill in weighing facts and determining their relative value.

4. Such habits and attitudes should be developed as will enable the pupil to enjoy natural beauty.

5. Such interest should be developed in geography and travel as will make the pupil want to read books on these subjects.

Methods of Teaching

The teacher may know what the objectives are, but unless she employs effective methods and techniques of instruction the objectives will not be realized to the fullest degree. The following suggestions are offered.

1. Observation. When the pupil comes to school he has already learned something about local geography thru his observation.

The teacher should use this beginning as a means of leading the pupil into wider and more careful observation. He may be led to inquire into the cause of certain conditions which he has observed superficially. Later this observation will have to be indirect because it will be impossible for him to get first hand all the facts which he needs to know in geography. His experience will be extended thru reading.

2. Conversation. The pupil should be allowed and encouraged to talk about his experiences and observations. Thru this method he will gain new ideas from other pupils as well as increased ability to express himself.

3. Use of pictures, maps, globes, etc. The observation of the pupil can be greatly extended thru the use of devices which represent scenes and conditions. If it is impossible for a pupil to see mountains, the next best thing is for him to see a picture of a mountain. Maps and globes are useful in representing the conditions and characteristics of large sections of the country. One means of leading a younger pupil to have a clearer understanding of maps is to help him to interpret a map representing characteristics with which he is familiar from actual experience.

4. Use of index and atlas. The pupil should be taught and encouraged to use the atlas for finding data which are necessary for the solution of problems. This means of locating facts is superior to that of memorizing a large amount of material.

5. Regional versus political geography. There should be a distinction between the teaching of geography of regions and the teaching of political geography. The pupil should know certain things about the geography of political divisions, but there are many advantages in studying regions which are similar without regard to the political boundaries.

6. Page assignment. The custom of assigning a definite number of pages as a lesson in geography is rapidly passing out of practice. When the pupil has a certain amount of material to read without any purpose in mind except that he may be able to recite, he will not gain much valuable information. Whatever facts do stick until the recitation period are soon forgotten. The method of assigning certain topics or assigning problems is manifestly superior to the page assignment.

7. Topics or types. The task assigned to a class may be a topic which is to serve as a type study. For example, the pupils may take as a topic, "The Industries of Chicago." This would be studied as a type to be used for comparison in the study of other large cities, the conditions and similarities between the two being noted. In an assignment of this sort the pupils would use their textbook for whatever material was available and would use as much reference material as was possible in gathering additional data.

8. Problem solving. The question has been asked as to whether or not we ever really think without having a problem before us. Without doubt problems are a great incentive to thinking. Many teachers are turning to the problem method of teaching geography. This method requires a good deal more preparation and knowledge on the part of the teacher than does the old page assignment. It requires that a list of problems be developed of proper difficulty to lead from what the pupil has already experienced and knows to the material which the teacher wishes the pupil to acquire. This method has the advantage that it is compellingly interesting to the pupils and that pupils and teachers alike have a definite goal toward which they are traveling.

9. Goals. Whatever the method of teaching is, there should be definite objectives toward which teachers and pupils alike may work. There should be a definite goal for the entire course in geography as well as intermediate goals for each semester's work. The pupils should not be kept in the dark as to what they are striving for, but should have a clear understanding of the objectives which they are expected to reach.

10. Variety of activities. The teacher should not have a single cut-and-dried method for attacking all phases of geography instruction. If the pupils are called upon to do the same kind of task from day to day, it will soon become monotonous, no matter how interesting it may have been in the beginning. The method may be varied from the problem method to the type method and the problems and types may be varied as to the way in which they are approached. The study of the stock yards in Chicago may be approached in one of several ways; viz, (1) Why are the stock yards located in Chicago? (2) What are the relative merits of Chicago and St. Louis in the location of the stock yards? (3) Is Chicago the best location which could have been secured?

(4) The stock yards industry in Chicago may be studied as a type and used for comparison in the study of similar industries in other cities.

11. Supplementary material. For the successful teaching of geography there must be a large amount of supplementary material to which the pupil may have access. Supplementary readers for geography should be had and a great deal of valuable material may be secured in pamphlet form at little or no cost. Each school and each teacher should see that a sufficient amount of supplementary material is available.

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A SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR THE TREATMENT OF A GEOGRAPHIC REGION

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Environment and man are the two major elements in a geographic study. Geography interprets the manifold relationships which exist between man and the world in which he lives. As the number of such interpretations increases, certain sections of the earth appear in which the environmental factors are somewhat similar, and as a result, in which man is engaged in somewhat similar activities. Probably no two localities have environments which are exactly alike, but sufficient resemblance exists between neighboring localities so that they can be grouped together into what is called a region. The definition of such a region might be: A considerable part of the earth's surface thruout which there are similar dominant conditions of physical environment, and consequently similar dominant human activities. The physical environment and the human activities are the two major elements in this concept.

The Physical Environment

A number of factors are grouped together to form the "geographic complex." These factors may be summed up under the following seven heads:

1. Space Relations
2. Land Surface
3. Soil
4. Climate
5. Vegetation and Animal Life
6. Mineral Resources
7. The Sea and its Coast

Some of these factors are universal and appear in every geographic problem, as for example, climate. On the other hand, some of the factors such as the seventh, appear only in certain regions, and may be entirely absent from a given problem; while others such as Mineral Resources, may remain latent for a long period of time, only to be made operative thru the activity of man. Furthermore, in any given region, some of these factors are more important than others; some factors exert a stronger influence, thus giving rise to the term, "strong and weak factors." For example, the factor of location has been of great importance in bringing about the political independence of Belgium and Holland, and in this region, location is a strong factor. In other regions, location might be only a weak factor. The mineral resource of nitrate in northern Chile is a strong factor, but the mineral resource of oil along the lower McKenzie River in Canada is a weak factor, since for other reasons the oil is practically inaccessible, and consequently its presence there is relatively unimportant.

In the study of a region, however, all factors, whether strong or weak, should at least be mentioned. From the point of view of a teacher, the student derives considerable benefit from the enumeration of all the factors, and the choice of the strong and weak ones. Which factors are of the greatest importance? Which ones are of lesser strength in the geographic complex? The thinking required in reaching a solution of these questions is of great value, even beyond the facts learned in one problem.

Human Activities

"Where do people live? Why do they live there? How do they live there?" Modern geography concerns itself with the answer to these questions. The activities of man may conveniently be divided under these three headings. The first division might

be labelled: facts concerning the distribution of people. Broadly interpreted, this would include not only the numerical distribution of population, but also the distribution of groups, such as political groups, social groups, groups of people engaged in the same activity, groups of people professing the same religious beliefs and so forth. This division can best be treated by the free use of maps.

The second division explains the distribution of people or groups of people. While geographic factors often have a great influence on the distribution, very commonly other factors appear which are non-geographic, such for example, as the presence of a supply of skilled labor, or the operation of a religious taboo. The question is then raised: what place should these non-geographic factors have in a geographic study? In the first place, many times these factors are themselves the result of geographic conditions. Religious taboos have been shown in places to be directly related to conditions of the physical environment. In such cases this influence should be made clear. Sometimes, however, the geographer finds himself forced to borrow material outright from another field of study, in which he, himself, is anything but an authority. Under these conditions, the geographer probably should make his treatment as concise as possible, avoiding moot points outside of his field, perhaps no more than enumerating the non-geographic factors in his problem. That an enumeration should be made seems highly desirable for two reasons: first, to make the explanation scientifically accurate, for often the geographer is able only very inadequately to make his explanation on the basis of geographic factors alone. Second, the relative importance of the environment influence cannot be clearly shown unless all the factors in a problem are considered. The geographer can borrow the necessary material from other sciences without causing undue criticism provided that he show clearly where he is borrowing, and provided that he never proceed farther into foreign fields than is absolutely necessary to obtain the material bearing directly on his problem.

The third division, answering the question: "How does man live?", includes the field of economic activities. The use of the land, the industrial development, the means of communication, and the exchange of goods between groups are to be considered under this head.

Thruout the study, causal relationship between geographic conditions and the activities of man should be constantly kept in mind as the fundamental purpose of the work. The effectiveness of the regional study becomes less and less in proportion as the opportunities for making this causal correlation are overlooked.

OUTLINE FOR THE TREATMENT OF A GEOGRAPHIC REGION

I. GEOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS
   1. Space relations
      1) Size
      2) Form
      3) Location
   2. Land surface
      1) Explanatory description of land forms
      2) Drainage
         (1) Navigable rivers
         (2) Water power
         (3) Water supply
         (4) Other uses
   3. Soil
   4. Climate
      1) Climatic data and charts for selected stations
      2) Temperature
      3) Rainfall and humidity
      4) Winds
      5) Types of weather
   5. Vegetation and animal life
   6. Mineral resources
   7. The sea and its coast

II. HUMAN ACTIVITIES
   1. The distribution of people
      1) Distribution by numbers
      2) Distribution by various significant groups
   2. Geographic, economic, historical, or other factors influencing the distribution of people or groups of people
   3. Economic activities
      1) Land activities
      2) Industrial development
      3) Transportation and communication
      4) Commerce

GEOGRAPHIC PUBLICATIONS

O. J. R. Howarth. **A Junior Economic Geography.** 95 pp., 6 maps. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York. 1923. $0.85.

The Junior Economic Geography is a simplified version of the "Commercial Geography of the World" and is intended for lower grade use. The author presents in simple language, natural regions, food and plant products, mining, manufacturing, transportation and settlement, for the world as a whole in the first sixty-three pages. The remainder of the book is devoted to the economic geography of regions. Grade teachers will find the book very suggestive and helpful.

P. L. Bell. **Venezuela: A Commercial and Industrial Handbook.** 459 pp., 7 maps, 14 photos. 1922. $1.00.

P. L. Bell. **Mexican West Coast and Lower California: A Commercial and and Industrial Survey.** 340 pp., 1 map, 14 Photos. 1923. $0.85.

P. L. Bell. **Colombia: A Commercial and Industrial Handbook.** 423 pp., 7 maps, 24 photos. 1921. $0.70.

W. L. Schurz. **Bolivia: A Commercial and Industrial Handbook.** 260 pp., 22 photos, 1 map, 1 diagram. 1921. $0.65.

A. W. Ferrin. **Australia: A Commercial and Industrial Handbook.** 162 pp., 10 maps, 17 photos. 1922. $0.75.

Ernst B. Filsinger. **Commercial Travelers' Guide to Latin America.** 698 pp., 43 maps. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1922. $1.25.

The series of handbooks being issued by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, contain excellent geographic discussions of the respective countries and a large amount of highly useful data. The "Commercial Travelers' Guide" is a veritable guide to the teacher as well. Here is a body of information that can be obtained nowhere else. Just let your children plan business trips to South America and see how they will make use of these volumes! They should be available to every progressive teacher.

H. M. Strong. **Distribution of Agricultural Exports from the United States.** Supplement to Commerce Reports. Trade Information Bulletin No. 177. 42 pp., 16 maps and diagrams. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D. C. 1924.

This excellent publication is the first of a series to be issued covering a "Survey of World Trade in Agricultural Products." It treats clearly our present exports, present markets, future markets; and discusses the great agricultural regions of the world whose products compete with American products in the markets of western Europe. It is of great value to teachers of geography.

Alexander McAdie. **Making the Weather.** 88pp. Macmillan Company, N. Y. 1923.

Making the Weather is a series of seven essays on The Air and Its Ways; The Truth About Rain-making; Visibility vs. Victory; Beneath the Fog; Wanted! Warming Pans; Fate and a Forecast, in which the author points out the importance of a knowledge of weather. His discussions of the weather as a factor in the Battle of Jutland; in German air raids on England; and in the fate of Lord Kitchener are especially interesting.